204 In January 1954, there were eight newspapers on the administrative district level in Szechwan Province alone. Six of these were intended to serve the farming population and one was the above-mentioned Min River Daily. The total circulation of these papers was about 80,000. Thirty-six papers were published at mining centers and factories near Chungking, where a number of others were published.[7] The exact number of hsien newspapers printed in this province are unknown.

[439] The total number of newspapers published in Southwest China today are unknown. The Communists began tightening their control on export of newspapers in the winter of 1951. By the spring of 1953, all but a few official and national newspapers were placed on the contraband list. Since then it has been extremely difficult to secure accurate statistics on the press in any region of China. Although the over-all policy of the regime has been to expand newspaper publishing, with the ultimate goal of a newspaper at each political level from the province to the village, there have been modifications in the execution of this policy during the past six years. Under the pretext of economy, some papers have been merged, and some new periodicals have been inaugurated. If the total national figures are any indication, the number of newspapers published currently in Southwest China is about

7. Jen-min Jih-pao [People's Daily] , Peking, January 17, 1954.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF16 SW China
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433
245 and her satellites. According to one estimate,
[439] the annual export of fruit from Szechwan
brings to China in return 4,000 tons of steel
products.[22]

241 Szechwan Province also produces raw
433 silk, ramie, herb medicines, hogs, and over
245 400 different "native products," of which at
least 40 are for export.[23] The leading export
is tung oil, of which Szechwan produces an
amount second only to that produced in Hunan
Province in the Central-South Region. The
prewar average production of tung oil was
estimated to have been 1,000,000 shih-piculs
(55,000 tons), and in 1947 this amount had
been increased to 1,292,372 shih-piculs
(71,080 tons).[24]

245 The principal special products of Yunnan
433 Province are tea, herb medicines, and oil-
bearing crops such as rapeseeds and peanuts.
"P'u-erh" tea and the ball of compressed
green tea leaves known as "T'o-ch'a", produced
in Yunnan, are popular throughout China.[25]

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22. Ibid.
23. Ibid.
24. Ma Chi, Chung-kuo Ti Shen-lin [China's Forestry], Shanghai, Commercial Press, 1952, p. 45.
25. China Daily News, New York, Aug. 15, 1955.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF 16 SW China
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Annex "A," Subparagraph 3i,
Economic Background

FOREIGN TRADE

I. INTRODUCTION

•439 A comprehensive survey of trade between Southwest China and foreign countries is not feasible because pertinent data is lacking. Much of the import and export trade of the inland region has been routed through seaports, and statistics on China's international trade have been compiled on the basis of reports submitted to the customs at the point of entry or embarkation.

In the case of imports, it is almost impossible to differentiate goods destined for the Southwest Region from those bound for other parts of the country until they reach their final destination. But to trace the flow of imports in the domestic market beyond their point of entry would require detailed trade statistics at wholesale and retail levels which are unobtainable. Nor is it feasible to make even crude estimates on the basis of regional consumption because relevant data is again lacking.

In the case of exports, the situation is somewhat different. We know what commodities are exported abroad from the Southwest Region and have available national export figures on these

products and statistics on their production in the Southwest and China as a whole. From these and other relevant data, we can obtain some idea of the Southwest's share in the export of tin, bristles, and tung oil. Because of the practical problems involved in an overall survey of the Southwest's foreign trade, this chapter will be confined to a discussion of the specific products, which are of special significance in the region's export trade.

II. TIN

China's tin production was badly crippled during World War II. Reduced from a high of more than 13,000 metric tons or 7.8 per cent of the world supply outside the Soviet Union in 1938 to a low of 2,000 metric tons in the last years of the war, the nation's output had recovered to only about one-third the 1938 rate at the time of the Communist takeover in 1949. Under the Communists, the production of tin was reported to have reached 6,400 tons in 1953 or about 3.6 per cent of total world production with the exception of the Soviet Union. Most of the increased output was the result of mining expansion in the Ko-chiu area of Yunnan, the major source of China's tin supply.

Tin constitutes a large part of Yunnan's total contribution to the nation's export trade. Under the Nationalist Government, much of China's tin went to the United States to pay the principal and interest on loans granted before and during World War II. However, China was only a minor source of supply for the United States' total tin requirements. (See Table 1.)

439
328 Details about the tin trade of Communist China are not now available. China's own needs for tin have undoubtedly increased under the Communist industrialization program, and any exportable surplus easily could have been absorbed by the Communist bloc of nations. Either or both suppositions would account for the complete discontinuance of Chinese tin shipments to Hong Kong after the Communist domination of the Mainland.[1]

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1. See the statistics covering trade between China and Hong Kong published regularly in the Far Eastern Economic Review, Hong Kong.

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Table 1. China's Tin Exports in Relation to the United States' Tin Requirements */

Year	U.S. Imports from China	U.S. Tin Consumption in Manufacturing	Percent of U. S. Requirements Met by Chinese Imports
	[In 1,000 tons]		
1935-39 (aver.)	2.7	77.3	3.43
1940-44 (aver.)	2.7	97.6	2.81
1945	1.9	83.6	2.06
1946	1.0	80.9	1.22
1947	2.6	88.1	3.00
1948	1.6	90.8	1.78
1949	3.7	72.4	5.09
1950	1.7	104.5	1.59
1951	.1	88.2	.62
1952	n. a.	78.4	-
1953	n. a.	85.6	-
1954	n. a.	82.6	-

*/ Commodity Research Bureau, Commodity Yearbook 1955, New York, 1955, p. 335.

1:Stanford U. S-4-5 1956 AF 16 SW China AF/6

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF 16 SW China
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III. BRISTLES

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237 Before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937, China's total export of bristles ranged from 8 to more than 10 million pounds a year. (See Table 2.) From 1937 to 1941, the volume was reduced to between 6 and 8 million pounds a year due to the curtailment of bristles supplies from North China and partial disruption of normal distribution channels inside China. In the following two years, the bristles trade between Free China and the outside world was drastically reduced by Japan's total blockade of the China coast. Improvements in air transportation and the Chinese Government's efforts in increasing the collection of bristles from producers in Southwest China, particularly in Szechwan, permitted the nation to more nearly meet the continuing demand abroad for the product by exporting 4 million pounds in 1944, as against only 600 thousands pounds the previous year. The dislocations arising from the war-to-peace transition and the unrealistic official foreign exchange rate of the Chinese yuan reduced the export of bristles in 1945 to 1.3 million pounds. From 1946 to 1948, exports of the product regained their prewar rate of about 10 million pounds a year.

Between 1930 and 1950, the United States and the United Kingdom were the chief importers of Chinese bristles. (See Table 2.) From 1931 to 1938, the United States directly imported between 35 and 45 per cent of China's total bristles export, and in the next ten years between 55 and 95 per

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF16 SW China AF16

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Table 2. China's Bristles Export in Relation to the United States' Bristles Import a/

Year	Total Export from China (in thousands of pounds)	Total Import of U.S.A.	China's Export to U.S.A.	China's Export to U.S. as Percentage of: China's Total Export	U.S.A Total Import
1931	8,484	4,245	3,081	36.1%	72%
1932	8,001	3,486	2,847	35.6%	82
1933	9,100	5,186	4,168	45.8	80
1934	9,275	4,145	3,341	36.0	81
1935	10,199	4,854	3,887	38.1	80
1936	11,607	-	4,693	40.4	90
1937	8,917	4,825	3,734	41.9	77
1938	8,011	3,209	2,859	35.7	89
1939	7,347	5,163	4,632	63.0	90
1940	7,840	5,640	5,078	64.8	90
1941	8,039	5,789	5,229	86.8	90
1942	141	1,458	958	686.5	66
1943	599	1,384	833	89.0	39
1944	4,282	2,871	1,669	38.7	58
1945	1,329	2,840	1,251	94.1	44
1946	10,493	8,454	5,785	55.1	90
1947	9,778	7,042	5,689	58.2	81
1948	10,125	7,307	6,842	67.6	94
1949	-	4,828	-	-	-
1950	-	7,367	-	-	-
1951	-	3,654	-	-	-
1952	-	5,368	-	-	-

a/ Based on Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of China, 1948, Nanking, 1948; and on the following publications of the United States Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C.: Foreign Commerce Yearbook, 1948, 1949, 1950; Monthly Summary of Foreign Trade of the United States.

(Table 2 faces p. 945.)

439 cent. These percentages are even higher if ship-
237 ments of Chinese bristles to the United States via Hong Kong are included. Statistics on the United States' importation of bristles show that from 80 to 90 per cent of the American foreign supply was normally derived from China.

After the Communists gained control of the Chinese Mainland in 1949, trade between the United States and China generally declined. However, the trade in bristles seems to have been an exception.

According to private information from a bristles merchant in New York, the commodity is of such strategic importance to the United States and so unavailable elsewhere than China that American government trade restrictions have been overlooked in regard to bristles imports, usually via Hong Kong. This policy would explain the steadiness of bristles imports into this country during 1950-52 (See Table 2.) despite the political changes occuring in China before that time.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF 16 SW China AF16

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237 It is difficult to estimate with precision the part of the Southwest provinces in Chinese bristles production, and export, although the importance of the region's contribution is generally known. Before 1937, according to one authoritative study, about 15 per cent of the bristles exported from China came from the Southwest provinces.[2] During the war, the collection and export of bristles in these provinces were administered by the Foreign Trade Commission, a Chinese government agency specially organized to foster the export trade of Free China. According to Nationalist Government statistics, the quantity of bristles collected in the Southwest provinces, mainly from Szechwan, during 1941-45, was as follows:[3]

Year	Thousands of Pounds
1940	1,638
1941	2,772
1942	3,520
1943	2,596
1944	2,728

On the basis of an average annual export of 10 million pounds for all China, the above figures

2. Chung-kuo Ching-chi Nien-chien [Economic Yearbook of China], Hong Kong, T'ai-p'ing-yang ching-chi yen-chiu she, 1947, pp. 55-58.

3. Chinese Ministry of Information, China Handbook, 1937-1945, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1947, p. 419.

439 and other relevant statistics indicate that between
237 15 and 20 per cent of the nation's bristles exports normally originated in Southwest China.

IV. TUNG OIL

439 During the last two decades, several impor-
245 tant developments have occurred in the tung oil trade between the United States and China. First, from 1939 to 1953, the United States' domestic production of tung oil increased by more than ten-fold, whereas the quantity imported was reduced by about two-thirds. In 1953, domestic production for the first time surpassed imports of the commodity. (See Table 3.)

A second important development was the decreasing importance of China as a source of supply for tung oil imports into the United States. Before World War II, more than 90 per cent of American tung oil imports usually came from China. During 1943-45, the Chinese supply disappeared almost entirely from the American market because of the wartime disruption of major transportation arteries between China and the outside world. A temporary recovery in the oil trade between the two countries occurred in 1946, but in the years following, the relative importance of the Chinese supply of tung oil to the United States was greatly reduced because of the increased production of tung oil in South American and the curtailment of Chinese trade as a result of civil war in the country.

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245 Yet another development in the Sino-American tung oil trade after World War II was the decline in the relative importance of the American market as an outlet for Chinese tung oil exports. From 1932 to 1937, Chinese tung oil shipments to the United States constituted from 62 to 72 per cent of China's total tung oil export. During 1946-48, the ratio dropped to between 31 and 52 per cent.

Like other statistics cited in this chapter, those pertaining to tung oil include only the quantity involved in direct trade between China and the United States; they do not account for shipments from China to America via Hong Kong, or other intermediate ports. The practice of indirect shipment was commonly used during the war because of the Japanese occupation of China's maritime provinces and was frequently resorted to in the postwar era to evade trade and foreign exchange restrictions enforced by the Nationalist Government. Despite the absence of figures on Sino-American indirect trade, the decreasing importance of Chinese tung oil to the United States market because of expanding production of the commodity in North and South America is quite evident.

Normally, about one-third of China's tung oil export comes from Szechwan; Kweichow, another Southwestern province, also produced tung oil but on a much smaller scale. Before the Communist Government came to power in Mainland China, the tung oil from Szechwan was usually shipped either in barrels or in bulk via the Yangtze River to Shanghai, where it was transhipped to foreign countries.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF16 SW China AF16

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Table 3. China's Tung Oil Export in Relation to the United States' Import and Production of Tung Oil */

Year	U. S. Domestic Production (- - - - in thousands of pounds - - - -)	U. S. Import for Consumption	U.S. Import From China	Total Export From China (in millions of lbs.)	U. S. Import From China As Percentage of: Total U.S. Import for Consumption	Total Export from China
1931	-	74,668	--	109.2	95.4%	-
1932	-	72,594	68,106	107.0	93.4	61.8%
1933	-	114,544	117,213	166.2	94.5	70.5
1934	-	110,007	90,476	143.9	84.4	62.8
1935	-	120,089	108,467	162.9	91.2	66.6
1936	-	134,850	137,319	191.2	94.8	71.8
1937	-	174,885	141,343	227.0	91.1	62.3
1938	-	107,456	12,538	155.4	-	8.2
1939	3,000	78,718	1,538	73.9	-	2.1
1940	62	97,049	-	51.2	-	-
1941	3,533	43,800	-	46.3	-	-
1942	2,290	8,389	-	2.0	-	-
1943	5,310	88	-	.2	-	-
1944	2,568	1,771	-	.2	-	-
1945	10,358	1,370	-	.2	-	-
1946	11,046	34,919	35,892	77.7	96.5	46.2
1947	12,880	114,327	84,755	177.8	45.00	30.9
1948	18,837	122,853	86,898	167.8	65.0	51.7
1949	22,449	54,687	-	-	-	-
1950	23,467	104,041	-	-	-	-
1951	12,667	24,847	-	-	-	-
1952	23,151	28,800	-	-	-	-
1953	43,153	-	-	-	-	-

*/ U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Statistics, 1954; U.S. Department of Commerce, Foreign Commerce Yearbook, 1948, 1949 and 1950; and Statistical Abstract of the Republic of China, 1947.

[Facing P. 949]

(Table 3 faces p. 949.)

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF16 SW China AF16
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245 After 1949, the pattern of the trade was drastically changed. Partly because of the trade policy of Communist China and partly because of American government restrictions on trade with Red China and the use of Chinese Communist assets in the United States, the continuance of Chinese tung oil exports on the old scale to the United States became impossible. Although during the last few years a considerable amount of tung oil has been shipped to the United States from Communist China, the volume has been relatively small compared to that of the pre-Communist era. Apparently, the United Kingdom, Western Europe, and countries in the Soviet bloc have replaced the United States as the leading outlets for Chinese tung oil exports.

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

000 which I believe would be the best to adopt. I do not think that it would be necessary, or even desirable, that the whole line from the Burmese frontier to the Yangtze should be undertaken at once. Such a project is too vast to be carried through in any way but by gradual stages.

My suggestion is that for the present the Burma railway should be extended from Lashio to Kun-long, and the Yün-nan Railway constructed from Kun-long to Yün Chou.

This town could be reached in about 145 miles from Kun-long at a cost of about £1,500,000 to £2,000,000. It is the commercial centre of a district which suffers much from want of communications with good markets. An extension of our railway system to Yün Chou will bring within range of Burma many parts of Yün-nan hitherto inaccessible, and will materially shorten the distance to places which already trade with us.

At present nearly all our trade with Yün-nan comes through Bhamo. The following table gives the comparative distances from Bhamo and from Yün Chou to different places in Yün-nan.

	To Bhamo	To Yün Chou
From T'êng-yüeh T'ing	112	161
„ Yung-ch'ang Fu	173	100
„ Hsia-kuan (near Ta-li Fu)	271	109
„ Ch'u-hsiung Fu	394	232
„ Yün-nan Fu	491	329
„ Ssŭ-mao T'ing	434	185

But the improvement of the trade between Burma and Yün-nan would be only one object of this extension to Yün Chou. It would also be the first step in the joining by railway of India with Shanghai. Having thus given an earnest of our intention to connect Burma with Yün-nan Fu we should be in a position to enter into negotiation with the French for a joint construction of that part of the line which would join Yün-nan Fu to the Yangtze.

•439 To come now to the question of the trade of Yün-nan. The most prosperous part of the province is that which comprises the series of fine plains which lie to the north, the east, and the south of Ta-li Fu (lat. 25° 42′, long. 100° 10′).

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

The commercial centre of this region is Hsia-kuan, which lies eight miles south of Ta-li Fu. All this country and even places considerably to the east of this are at present supplied from Burma, for from Hsia-kuan to Lao-kai on the Tong-king border is considerably further than from Hsia-kuan to Bhamo.

When the French railway is completed from Tong-king to Yün-nan Fu while the Burma railway terminus is still at Lashio, this advantage will disappear. For from Hsia-kuan to Bhamo is 280 miles against 220 miles from Hsia-kuan to Yün-nan Fu. I have taken Hsia-kuan as an instance, but naturally with the trade of Hsia-kuan would also vanish that of other similarly situated places which lie nearer to Yün-nan Fu than to Bhamo or Lashio.

If we sit still and do nothing we shall therefore lose the trade of a great part of even Western Yün-nan. But if we construct our railway even as far as Yün Chou, we shall easily retain this, for from Hsia-kuan to Yün-nan Fu the French terminus is 220 miles, and from Hsia-kuan to Yün Chou 109 miles.

There is however another railway project which must be noticed here—the proposed line from Bhamo to T'êng-yüeh (Momien) (lat. 25°, long. 98° 30′). A survey of this route has been made: the distance by the line that a railway would follow is 122 miles and the approximate cost is estimated at less than a million pounds[1].

Though there is no railway at present at Bhamo, this place is connected by river steamers with Rangoon and with the railway system of Burma at Katha, and would thus form a suitable starting-point for a railway into Yün-nan. It is moreover by the Bhamo route that most of the present trade between Yün-nan and Burma is carried on, and the line would thus have the advantage of following a well-established trade route.

The construction of a railway between Bhamo and T'êng-yüeh would be comparatively speaking an easy and cheap undertaking, and it would doubtless pay after a time.

[1] These are only preliminary estimates. The results of the final survey are not yet published.

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

These slabs are then framed and are sent all over China to be hung up on the walls of houses as ornaments. The marble is also in much request for tombstones.

Silver bracelets and other things are also made in the town, but there is nothing remarkable about the workmanship. Gold is another somewhat important article of trade: it is usually beaten into gold leaf and sent in this form to Burma where it is in much demand for gilding pagodas. European goods come in through Bhamo, but they seemed very scarce, and were represented by a few cotton, calico, and woollen goods, needles, thread, and tinned milk. Some Tibetan products, chiefly furs and medicines, also find their way to Ta-li. Most of this is brought down in April, in which month a great annual fair is held here which attracts thousands of strangers who come in to trade from all parts of the province.

Ta-li is an important place from the official point of view. It is the residence of the T'i-t'ai, who is commander-in-chief of all the troops in Yün-nan, and of a Tao-t'ai[1], who governs a very large district including the whole of the western part of the province right up to the Burmese border.

I stayed two days in Ta-li hospitably entertained by Mr and Mrs Smith. The former was most kind in showing me all the sights of the place, which include several very fine temples. One of these on the road between Ta-li and Hsia-kuan was built in honour of Yang, the famous Chinese general who retook Ta-li from the Panthays and put an end to the rebellion. In it is an image of the great general himself, extremely well done, and the old man in charge of the temple told us it was an excellent likeness. He seems to have been a remarkable man, very short in stature but extremely energetic and not much hampered by attention to official etiquette, so much so that he would even walk about the streets, instead of being carried in a sedan chair. Military mandarins often rather affect this disregard of etiquette, and put on what they consider a bluff, soldierlike manner, talking in a loud voice and so on. Possibly many of them are not very conversant with all the points of correct Chinese deportment, as they are often men of low origin.

[1] This Tao-t'ai is now said to have his official residence in T'êng-yüeh.

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

and opium are produced in some quantity.[1] European goods, such as cotton, cloth and thread, come by Bhamo, T'êng-yüeh, and Ta-li. There is not much trade in the place, though we did on the march in meet some mules loaded with iron. This, they say, is produced in the Shuang-lung-tung mine, two days march off, in the direction of Yang-pi.

Continuing our journey on the following day up the Mêng-hua plain we struck into the road I had come down by in 1895[1], and followed this to Ta-li Fu, which we reached on the 26th of February. Here we were glad to find Mr and Mrs Graham of the China Inland Mission, and also Mr Amundsen, a Swedish missionary. The latter had just arrived from Ta-chien-lu[2], after a most interesting journey in which he had visited a great deal of previously unexplored country in Chinese Tibet. He has since given an account of his travels to the Royal Geographical Society[3].

Ryder and Watts-Jones had both passed through Ta-li some time before, and we expected that they would have left a letter for us. They had in fact done so, as we afterwards found out, but their Chinese servant had neglected to give it to Mr Graham, and we were consequently without certain news of them. All we could learn was that they had both gone north to Li-chiang Fu, and from there had separated, taking different routes for Ch'u-hsiung Fu (lat. 25°, long. 101° 35′). We therefore decided to take the main road to the latter place, as none of us had yet been along this route, though several former travellers had seen it.

[1] See p. 72.
[2] Lat. 30° 5′, long. 102° 10′.
[3] *Geographical Journal*, June 1900, and November 1900.

1 [into Mêng-hua village -- Analyst]

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

the two streams that water it are irrigated: the rest of the plain lies too high and is consequently little cultivated. The natives of Lin-an, like those of T'êng-yüeh, have a strong antipathy to anyone who has not had the good fortune to be born a Chinaman. So far do they carry their hatred of everything foreign that they even refuse to weave their cloth out of foreign yarn. They import their material for making clothes in the shape of raw cotton from the Shan States. Such at least was the case at the time of my visit.

Three days from Hsin-fang, over a fairly open plateau country, brought us to Mêng-tzŭ[1], where I was hospitably entertained by Mr and Mrs Spinney of the Imperial Maritime Customs.

This place was only opened as a treaty port in 1889. The foreign settlement is pleasantly situated outside the town, the European community at the time consisting, besides the Customs Staff, of a French consul, a doctor, and one French merchant. The well-built, well-furnished houses in which they lived made one feel that one was in civilisation once more.

Mêng-tzŭ was considered a very quiet place, and the inhabitants of the town were extremely civil and fairly free from curiosity. But only a short time after my visit the Europeans there had a very unpleasant awakening from their sense of security.

In the middle of the night the foreign settlement was attacked by a large armed mob recruited principally from the workers in the Ko-chiu tin mines. The foreign community, among whom at the time were several French officers, concentrated in the French Consulate and made good their defence. The rioters, however, killed two Chinese servants and burned or carried off everything from the remaining houses.

Mêng-tzŭ is a busy place for Yün-nan, and even though the rainy season had begun I must have met quite 1000 loaded mules since leaving T'ung-hai. They were most of them carrying cotton yarn imported from Bombay *viâ* Hong Kong. This Indian yarn is cheaper than the Man-

[1] Sometimes spelt Mêng-tsz' or Mong-tze.

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

439 chester product and is rapidly supplanting the latter in western China.

The height of Mêng-tzŭ I made about 4,700 feet, and the climate is pleasantly cool. The inhabitants of the surrounding country belong principally to the P'u-la and other tribes, speaking dialects of the Lo-lo type.

133 After spending two very pleasant days here, I started for the Red River, taking three days to do the 30 miles which separate Mêng-tzŭ from Man-hao. The country passed through is curious, consisting chiefly of a mass of small basins with no outlet for the water. These "devil's punch-bowls" are characteristic of a great part of the eastern and south-eastern parts of Yün-nan.

485 Another curious and unpleasant feature of the road from Mêng-tzŭ to Man-hao is the entire absence of any sort of inn accommodation for men. There are large stables for mules at the recognised halting places, but no provision is apparently considered necessary for human beings who are so ill advised as to take a road which leads into countries outside the borders of the Middle Kingdom.

000 As it rained on and off, I had to sleep beside my mules on the first night, and on the second to squeeze into an extremely small temple already occupied by a tax collector and his clerk. The country passed through is very poor and thinly populated. The village of Yao-t'ou, where I slept my second night, is considered too unhealthy to live in by the Yün-nanese, and is inhabited by Cantonese who have found their way there through Tong-king. Its height is over 4000 feet, but it is placed in a narrow valley much shut in by hills, which perhaps accounts for its bad reputation. The name Yao-t'ou means "shake head," and is said to have been given to it because everyone who sees it shakes his head in disapproval.

From here, after a little up hill, a very steep descent in pouring rain brought us down to the Red River at Man-hao at a height of 600 feet. The village contains 100 houses,
505 inhabited by Cantonese Chinamen and Shans. Small boats can go a considerable distance further up the river, but Man-hao is the limit for large boats and may be considered as practically the head of navigation.

Mr Spinney had kindly arranged about a boat, so I was

Sino-Tibetan Border AE3

S 252

Mi-li to Chung-tien

ST 233 But Chung-tien is essentially a grazing country. Everywhere one sees large herds and flocks of live stock—yaks, S cattle, ponies, mules, sheep, and pigs. The breed of ponies ST is considered a good one, and mules and ponies are taken [439] nearly every year to Bhamo for sale. Rice and sugar are the chief imports, brought in by Chinese traders from Ho-ch'ing Chou. No doubt the district would be very S prosperous if it were not ground down by the lamas.

ST 563 101 The natives of Chung-tien are of a different race from those of Mi-li. The latter belong to the semi-Tibetan family which it is convenient to call Hsi-fan. I was told that there were two different tribes in the Mi-li state, called K'a-mi and P'rü-mi respectively. The inhabitants of Chung-tien are of the genuine Tibetan race, who call themselves Pê or Pö. This in the written language is "b'ot" and is probably the last syllable of our word Tibet, the first syllable being the Tibetan word "teu" meaning "high" or S "upper[1]."

ST 195 A vocabulary that I took down at Chung-tien shows that the language of that district only differs in dialect from the Tibetan of Lhasa. The speech of Mi-li, on the contrary, though it contains some Tibetan words, is more nearly akin to the Lo-lo and to other Hsi-fan dialects.

[1] This is Desgodins' derivation, and Rockhill also agrees. Terrien de Lacouperie, however, derives "Tibet" from *Deba*, which means a ruler or king.

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known each other at Eton, for he was in the eleven while I was still a "lower boy" and would not have dared to address one who had attained such a distinguished position. After a few years in a cavalry regiment, he had thrown up his commission and come out to China as a missionary.

Two of the others whom we met were contemplating a journey further in to Tibet and hoped to establish a mission station at Ba-t'ang.

We also went to see M^gr^ Giraudeau, the Bishop of the French Tibetan mission, and thanked him for the many kindnesses we had received from the French missionaries.

Ta-chien-lu is the great trading mart of eastern Tibet. Furs, medicine, and musk are the exports to China, and tea is the principal import into Tibet. The amount of tea drunk in Tibet must be very large for the size of the population, for everyone, however poor, drinks it constantly, in fact at every meal. A certain quantity of P'u-êrh tea is imported from Yün-nan, but by far the greater part of the tea for Tibet passes through Ta-chien-lu.

It is grown in western Ssŭ-ch'uan chiefly in the Ya-chou Fu district. All that is imported into Tibet is of a very coarse quality and is largely adulterated with sticks. The cost of carriage to distant parts of Tibet is so large that a good quality of tea could be sold there only at a prohibitive cost.

Mr A. de Rosthorn has published a pamphlet[1] on the subject of the tea trade and this probably contains the most accurate information available. He estimates the weight of the annual import through Ta-chien-lu as 108,780 piculs, which comes to fourteen and a half million English pounds.

He discusses the question of whether tea can ever be profitably imported from Assam into Tibet, but comes to the conclusion that the Chinese tea, adulterated as it is with 65 per cent. of twigs and leaves of other plants, and sold at Ba-t'ang at 5½*d.* and at Lhasa at 11*d.* a pound will continue to hold its own, except possibly in parts of Tibet very remote from China.

[1] *On the Tea Cultivation in Western Ssŭ-ch'uan*, by A. de Rosthorn. London, Luzac & Co., 1895.

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Opium is produced in Yün-nan far beyond the requirements of the province, and is largely exported into other parts of China[1]. The opium of Yün-nan is considered by the Chinese to be of very fine quality, though not quite up to the standard of Indian opium. 249

Hemp, which at present is not much cultivated, might easily be extensively grown and exported for rope making. Many kinds of *fruit*, which will not grow in the tropical climate of Burma, thrive in Yün-nan, and even now form a fairly important export. These are apples, pears, quinces, peaches, apricots, cherries, persimmons (dried like figs), chestnuts, and walnuts. Yün-nan *tea* is famous all over China. There is not likely to be much trade in this commodity to Burma, but a railway through to Ssŭ-ch'uan should carry considerable quantities. *Livestock* already forms one of the principal exports from Yün-nan into Burma. Mules, ponies, cattle, and buffaloes are all far cheaper in China than in Burma, so that they can be sold at a profit in the latter country. Sheep are cheap in China, and do not thrive in the warm climate of Burma. At present slaughter-sheep are imported into Burma from India. 245 439 231 439

There are in Yün-nan large grazing grounds which are lying idle because there is not sufficient demand for live-stock. If the farmers had a ready means of disposing of their surplus animals, the flocks and herds of the province would doubtless largely increase. Moreover the trade which now exists in *horns* and *hides* would grow at the same time, and *wool* might become a most important article of export. 237 439

Among minor exports in which a considerable trade might spring up may be mentioned *pigs' bristles*, *ducks' feathers*, and the *white of eggs* for albumen; also from the Tibetan part of Yün-nan *furs* and *musk*.

As to minerals, *gold* has always been an article of export, chiefly in the form of gold-leaf to gild the Burmese pagodas. Whether *other metals* could be profitably brought into Burma or India is a question that cannot be decided till the mines have been more thoroughly examined, but 316 439

[1] This was written before the recent restrictions on opium-growing. See footnote on p. 311.

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doubtless with mining operations developed by a railway there would be large exports to other provinces of China. At present there is an export trade of copper, zinc, and lead from Yün-nan to the Yangtze.

Imports. To come now to *imports*. Of these cotton is by far the most important. The whole population of Yün-nan is clothed in cotton clothes, and yet practically no cotton is grown in the province. The whole clothing of this part of China has therefore to be imported. It is brought in as raw cotton, as cotton yarn, and as cotton cloth; but the greater part of it comes as yarn and is woven into cloth in the province. Raw cotton will however always be a necessity, as in winter the Chinese wear wadded coats for warmth. The imported cotton cloth is usually too dear for the poorer classes, but is worn a great deal by those better off.

At present the chief weaving centre is at Hsin-hsing Chou (lat. 24° 20′, long. 102° 35′), and this has become firmly established owing to the treaty port at Mêng-tzŭ (Meng-tsz') having been opened before T'êng-yüeh (Momien). Weaving is, however, carried on at other places as well, and factories would spring up wherever a railway brought cotton yarn in cheaply.

In Ssŭ-ch'uan there is also a large population—estimated as at least 45,000,000—who are also almost entirely dependent for their cotton on outside sources. But with the probability of this province being connected by rail with Hankow in the near future, it is doubtful whether much of this traffic would be secured by the Yün-nan railway.

Woollen clothes are at present almost unknown at Yün-nan. It is doubtful perhaps if fashion would ever allow woollen coats to be worn in public instead of the universal wadded cotton garments. But this would probably not apply to sleeping in woollen blankets and wearing woollen underclothes.

Leather is an article that is not well made in China, and imported leather should find a sale. *Firewood* is scarce and dear in most parts of Yün-nan and Ssŭ-ch'uan. In Burma there is an almost inexhaustible supply at a quarter the price. This may become an important article of trade, and *timber* should also be an import.

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Salt is at present imported into north-eastern Yün-nan from Tzŭ-liu-ching in Ssŭ-ch'uan.

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Finally there are many things which are almost necessaries of life in Europe that the Chinese would readily buy if increased trade gave them some surplus money with which to purchase them. The Chinaman is very willing to adopt new ideas, and to buy things that are new to him if he sees they are useful.

The late Mr G. Litton, in a consular report on Yün-nan, gave the following as articles likely to have an extended market:—"Cheap clocks and watches, mirrors, enamelled ironware, cheap ribbons and laces for trimmings, pocket knives, padlocks, umbrellas, leather belts, cigarettes, jade, coral, and amber." To these I would add lamps, kerosene oil, candles, glasses, fans, musical boxes, tinned milk, sugar, biscuits, and other groceries. It should be remembered also that the introduction of railways will lead to the opening up of mines, and consequently to a considerable import of mining machinery.

Goods carried within the province. Nearly every product of Yün-nan would be carried by the railway from one place to another within the province, for there is naturally much produce taken from country districts to Yün-nan Fu and other towns. Considerable quantities of rice would be carried in this way, and there must be a large trade in such articles as tea, sugar, salt, and tobacco, which are only produced in certain localities, though they are almost necessities of life everywhere. Firewood too should be carried in large quantities from the more wooded districts to the towns and to places where fuel is scarce.

With the mines well worked there would be a great demand for carriage not only of metals but of coal and other fuel.

Passenger traffic. The prospects of passenger traffic in Yün-nan would I think be good. The Chinaman is an enterprising man who does not hesitate to travel long distances for trade purposes, or to emigrate altogether to another part of the country if he thinks he can benefit himself by doing so.

As it is, the Chinese are quite accustomed to making journeys for business or pleasure, and there will be much

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166 the neighboring provinces of interior China. The influx of these heterogeneous groups of immigrants brought with it many ideas and practices to help in the adjustment of the people to their new environment, particularly in connection with agricultural and forestry land use. This fact helps to explain the present heterogeneity of the agricultural landscape of the Basin.

463 439 Agriculture and forestry are the outstanding features of the economy of the Szechuan Basin. Approximately 85 per cent of the people gain their livelihood from agricultural pursuits. In terms of exports from the Basin, however, the leading item, Tung oil, is a forest product. Most of the other exports are either agricultural or forestry products.

241 312 In so far as agricultural land use is concerned, nowhere else in China except in Szechuan Basin does one find terraced fields so extensively, elaborately, and finely made, and irrigation systems so greatly diversified and ingeniously devised. The Basin is almost literally a country of "millions of minute steps" and a land of "thousands of small ditches." The terraced fields and the irrigation ditches, together with the hard-working peasantry have helped to transform the otherwise hostile rugged Szechuan Basin into a smiling garden.

Other unique features of the Basin's agricultural land use include the age-old but the recently much publicized Tung Shui Tien (winter storage water field) system; the cultivation of Tsai Seng Tao (double-growth) variety rice; the numerous special methods of soil culture, fertilization, composting, and crop rotations; and the various elaborate systems of inter-culture and synchronization of crops.

133 As has been implied, the Basin is a natural unit. Its combination of surface, climate, soil, and drainage is unlike that of any other part of China. In large measure, the interior of the Basin within the mountainous border is made up of hill country which varies from hilly areas of low relief in the south to the fairly high parallel anticlinal ridges in the east and to a border of complex hills at the north. Near the western edge of the Basin, the hills give way to the Chengtu Plain, a broad piedmont alluvial plain, the most productive part of the Basin.

132 Climatically, the Basin has a phase of the "humid subtropical" type of climate.[1] The Basin extends from latitude 28

[1] G. Trewartha, An Introduction to Weather and Climate, Plate I, 1937.

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Pig-raising is a common side-line of all farms in the Basin. Bristles are produced in nearly every district of the Basin. But the most important producing centers are I-ping, Pa-hsien, Nan-chung, Chien-yang, Yung-chang, and Lung-chang (Fig. 39). Most of these districts produce black bristles. Yung-chang and Lung-chang alone are noted for their excellent white bristles. They are particularly well known for their brilliance, length, and strength and have long held at a premium in the international market. The black bristles produced at Ho-chuan, Nan-chung, Ta-hsien, and Pa-hsien (Fig. 39) along the Chialing River Valley are the best on account of their special brilliance. 237

The bristle-collecting season in the Basin extends generally from November to April, i.e., throughout the cold season. Generally no business is done during the rest of the year. This is mainly because the bristles grown during the hot weather are said to be soft and useless for manufacturing purposes. The Szechuan bristles, on account of their great strength, elasticity, brilliance, and relative immunity to moisture, are of a particularly high quality, and have long enjoyed a favorable reputation throughout the world. The best foreign buyers are the United States, which normally takes 30 per cent of the total exports; France and Japan, each taking about 20 per cent; and Germany and Great Britain, each taking about 15 per cent of the total exports. The principal use of the Basin's bristles in the United States are for tooth- and other high-grade brushes. But with the recent introduction of manufactuning bristles for such purposes in the United States, the prospect of this commodity, in so far as export is concerned, remains somewhat uncertain. 237 439

b) Sheep and cow hides.--While most of the provinces in China produce either water buffalos (as in South China) or oxen (yellow cattle) (as in north China), Szechuan Basin produces both. Among all the interior provinces in China, Szechuan Basin is the most important in the production of cow hides. The areas around Chengtu, Lo-shan, Lu-hsien, Pa-hsien, and Wan-hsien (Fig. 39) are particularly important. The cow hides produced in Chengtu Plain, owing to the good pasture nearby, are especially abundant in quantity and superior in quality. It is estimated that the annual output of cow hides, including both the water buffalo and the yellow cow, is approximately 50,000 piculs. Formerly, on account of the lack of tanning establishments in the 237

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The principal overseas market for Szechuan silk at present (shortly before the war) is in the United States, France, and Burma. For exports to the first two markets, silk is normally shipped down the Yangtse to Shanghai for overseas transhipment, whereas silk for the Burma market ordinarily goes by way of the Lo-shan-I-ping via Kunming, Yunnan route. The difficulty of transportation by way of the latter route is stupendous. Ordinarily it takes at least three to four months, by human carriers, for one trip from Lo-shan to Rangoon, Burma, and the transportation costs sometimes run as high as two-fifths of the value of the goods themselves. Unless transportation facilities along this route are improved, no matter how strongly the Burmese favor Szechuan silk, as has been the case thus far, the silk trade between Szechuan and Burma will always remain greatly limited. 231 438

Besides the difficulty of transportation, silk production in the Basin is now confronted by new handicaps. Silkworm rearing, formerly a profitable supplementary rural industry, has now given way to the production of grains (many mulberry fields have been converted into grain fields) which have been commanding high prices during recent years as a result of the increasing demand for foodstuffs due to the war.

e) Duck feathers and other products.--One cannot very well close this section on livestock production of the Szechuan Basin without mentioning another interesting product--duck feathers. The Basin normally has a total of over fifteen million ducks.[1] They are especially concentrated in the districts around Chengtu Plain, Lo-shan, I-ping, Yo-chi, and Pa-hsien (Fig. 39). Besides the wide use of the meat for food by the natives, the feathers are especially valued by the wealthy people for use in making light, warm and soft comforters, filling pillow cases and quilts, spinning yarn, weaving cloth, and a number of other uses. 237 [235]

The total production of duck feathers is estimated to be approximately 10,000 piculs annually. Approximately 70 per cent of the total product is shipped to markets overseas. Before the war, France was the leading customer, taking 30 per cent of the total export, with the United States and Great Britain each taking 20 per cent, and Germany and Japan each taking about 10 per cent. 237 439.

[1] Report of the Bureau of Central Agricultural Research (1939), p. 63.

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314 marketing and transportation of the product. Prior to the war, Wan-hsien, between Chungking and Hankow, was the most important shipping center for Szechuan tung oil, as well as other products. 314 Its importance was due to its geographical location on the main 439 waterway to Shanghai via Hankow. But, however, since the fall of Wu-Chang-Hankow tri-cities and consequently the close of the gorges route to the east due to the enemy's blockade, this route of transhipment of tung oil has been greatly shifted. Now, Chungking, because of its new political importance and because it is the starting point of new highways in southwest China, has become the most vital concentration point and the sole exporting center of tung oil. While in 1935-36 the oil sent to Chungking for transhipment (totaling 150,000 quintals) was only three-fourths that sent to Wan-hsien, the 1938 figures for Chungking showed an increase to 350,000 quintals.[1] The amount sent to Wan-hsien, on the other hand, dropped to 150,000 quintals,[2] only a little over one-third that sent to Chungking. Districts that formerly sold their oil through Wan-hsien now turn their products over to the purchasing agents of the Foreign Trade Commission at Chungking.[3] This newly created concern, with the cooperation of both government and private interests, collects the processed oil and exports it abroad by way of the Kweichou-Szechuan highway (Fig. 18) through the back door of China.

In 1938, 42.9 per cent of the local oil came from points east and south of Chungking, 24.4 per cent from places along the Chialing and Chu rivers, 14.2 per cent from the Chien and Wu River valleys, 17.1 per cent from points along the Yangtse above the city of Chungking, and the remaining 1.4 per cent from other places.[4] This kind of tung oil concentration and shipment is consistent with the general patterns of its production, because the principal tung-oil-producing areas, as already mentioned, are concentrated in the districts both north and south of Chungking, and in the upper Chialing and Chien River Valley areas.

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[1] Foo-hsing Trade Corporation, Trade Report (1939), p. 32.

[2] Ibid., p. 34.

[3] Ibid., p. 38.

[4] Ibid., p. 41.

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Tung oil is widely used in the modern industrial world. It has been proved particularly invaluable in making high grade paints, in boat-building, and in the manufacturing of many other water-proof products. The refuse cake, chemically a complete fertilizer, is valued highly by the farmers of the Basin for fertilization purposes. It is used especially for the dry crop fields, such as corn, kaoliang, and other crops, but is very seldom applied to the rice-fields. It is reported that these tung-cake fertilizers are particularly suitable to the corn crop.[1] The shells of the tung seed, together with rice and soy bean stalks, burned and treated, are commonly used to prepare a cheap soap for the local farming families.

China now produces about 85 per cent of the total world supply of Tung oil, and the production of Szechuan Basin alone accounts for about 40 per cent of the total tung oil export of all China. The best customer was the United States, which, before the war, took on an average about half of the total production. Other customers were Germany, with about 25 per cent of the total; England, with about 15 per cent; and France, Italy, and Japan, each with about 5 per cent of the total annual export.

From the standpoint of the agricultural economy of the Basin, the production of tung oil is vitally significant. Even apart from the huge amount of cash income it brings in the export market, the value of the refuse cake for fertilization, and other industrial purposes, such as the manufacturing of soap, the total value of the Tung tree to the farmers of the Basin is incalculable. Hence, the Bureau of Agricultural Research of Szechuan has recently launched an ambitious ten-year expansion program to boost the Basin's Tung-tree production. It aims to increase the present yearly production of oil from 400,000 quintals to 1,000,000 quintals. At the same time, the Foreign Trade Commission together with the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry have a five-year plan for increasing tung-oil production in Szechuan, Hupeh, Hunan, Kweichow, and Kwangsi to 650,000 quintals per year. In addition to existing Tung trees, according to the five-year plan, Szechuan is to plant Tung trees on an additional 500,000 mow of land as a necessary step in the expansion program.[2]

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[1] Y. J. Hsiao, "A Study of the Agricultural Practices of Szechuan," Reconstruction Weekly, IV, No. 7 (1933), 6.

[2] Bureau of Agricultural Research of Szechuan, Annual Report (1940), p. 76.

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loosened. They finished off by plundering Ta tsien lu and thereupon took off their uniforms and dispersed. The victorious republicans followed on their heels, ravaged the unfortunate inhabitants anew, beheaded the younger brother of the King of Dschagla who had faithfully clung to the old regime and had followed the rest into the plains. The King himself remained hidden for months in the mountains, and did not dare return to his residence which the fighting Chinese had set on fire. Since then the fight is raging in the vicinity of Li tang and Tibet is waiting until another Son of Heaven has fought his way up through the predominance of irrationality, and restored order in China.

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/208/ However, Ta tsien lu is not only the point of departure for war-like expeditions of conquest and the key to Tibet. It is not only the base for Chinese politics in Lhasa. Dartsendo, the Chinese Ta tsien lu, is the largest market town of the whole of Tibet. On my way from Dscherku ndo I met thousands upon thousands of animals, all of whom were loaded down with bales of tea, /209/ all of which had been bought in Dartsendo. Tea is the article of trade which here is by far the most important. Several Chinese wholesale merchants quoted to me the amount of tea that is brought up within a year and here sold to the Tibetans at 7,000,000 cätties, i.e., about 4,500,000 kilograms. (1)

1. I was baffled by this small figure. En route I had figured out, judging from the number of pack animals that I met, that 4,000 tons go by way of Gantse into the interior. However, I estimated that the amount that goes to Ba tang and Li tang and farther inland is at least the same. Attempts have been made to draw inferences about the population of Tibet from the size of the tea trade, but we must not forget that poor Tibetans drink the decoction from any kind of plant in place of the Chinese tea which is always expensive because of the cost of transport. Consul General A. Hosie in his Report Presented to the Parliament, August 1905, puts the figures, on the basis, of accurate estimates, at 8,533,000 cätties worth 948,591 taels, and places the total value of cotton goods, silk and khadar exported to Tibet, at

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75,000 taels. According to Hosie, the value of musk exported from Tibet in 1904 was 300,000 taels and the weight 1,100 to 1,200 cätties, 6,000 ounces of gold dust came from Tibet, whereas only 400,000 cätties (260 tons) of sheep wool and only 150,000 sheep skins passed the customs office in Ta tsien lu.

In 1907 the wholesale merchants told me that the amount of musk that had come through Ta tsien lu in the last 12 months was estimated at 1,400-1,500 cätties. The Li kin official at the East Gate down below told me it was only 1,000 cätties. Without doubt, a great deal is smuggled.

Desgodins in Le Tibet d'après la correspondance des Missionaires, Paris, 1885, p. 349, figured that only 2,666,640 pounds of tea come through Ta tsien lu.

For Chinese export into the entire richer and relatively densely populated southern part of Tibet only Ta tsien lu is of importance. Thus the figure of Hosie seems even slighter and all the more surprising if one compares them with the Anglo-Indian export to Tibet which, for the year 1897-1898, for instance, according to the Blue Book on Tibet for 1904, already rose to 820,000 rupees, (with about 820,000 rupies import to India), and withal England complained at that time, as is well known, that as a matter of principle China excluded her from trade with Tibet. At that time the export of tea all but stopped because the Tibetans did not care for the taste of Anglo-Indian tea.

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/210/ Dartsendo tea which, without exception, comes from the districts of the neighboring prefecture of Ya tschou fu, comes in four varieties and is rather loosely packed in bamboo mats. It is brought here by Chinese carriers who can transport a veritable inhuman weight (up to three and one-half hundredweight), piled high on their shoulders. The tea is coarse, with large leaves, and is generally mixed with stalks and little twigs. It has a harsh flavor and the aroma is slight and quickly evaporates. It is brown in color and looks like dried and pressed clippings from a garden hedge. The Chinese deliver the tea as far as the East Gate of Ta tsien lu. From there it goes by way of the go tschwan into the hands of Tibetans who have traveled here from the interior. This arrangement with the

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go tschwan is very old. Every larger monastery, every district in the interior, every group of farmers has a specific unloading station, has its go tschwan (Tibetan: dyabtak) corresponding to the hsië kia of Dankar. However, while in Dankar ting which has become Chinese to a large degree, the Chinese and Mohammedans share this office and nowadays not nearly every tribe has its specific unloading station (hsië), in the predominantly Tibetan, i.e., feudal Dartsendo the go tschwan stop is a prerogative which the king bestows and which he assigns as a fief to specific persons and families, that is, to old noble families. Those who hold it are called adya. There are 48, as many as there are bailiwicks or tu be fu offices in all of Dschagla. The families who have this prerogative maintain a caravansary (go tschwan) where the tsung bon or tscham tsod from the interior can be accommodated with all their animals, and where feed and provisions are supplied. The adya has a tung sche who accompanies the guests to the Chinese merchants. The merchant from the interior can pick out the Chinese merchants and tea dealers with whom he wishes to do business, but he cannot transact any business without the adya or the latter's tung sche. The firm of adya vouches for both parties. He is the middle man, similar to the komprador of the European merchants on the China coast. For this he is paid a certain rate of assessment. The go tschwan has the tea which has been purchased from the Likin office and makes arrangements with the head of the leather workers who, along with 12 to 20 assistants, packs and sews the Tibetan merchant's order into raw yak hides, so as to make the tea as hard as bricks and guard it against all kinds of damage which it might suffer on the long journey, as a result of misbehavior of stubborn yaks or through rain, snow and river fords. A yak load of 80 cätties costs 25 to 30 rupies in Ta tsien lu, according to the quality of the tea, and consists of two half-loads, each of which contains 16 bricks. Thus, one brick weighs 2.5 cätties and costs about one rupie. In Dscherku ndo the same brick costs 2.2 to 2.5 rupees, according to quality, and it should be noted in this connection that the rupee there stood at 0.4 tael, whereas at that time the rupie in Ta tsien lu had a value of only 0.32 tael, that is, approximately only its worth in silver.

Only at first glance, however, is it surprising that not only K'am (Anterior Tibet) but also Wu or dBus along with Lhasa (Central Tibet) and Tsang along with Shigatse (Chinese: Hinter Tsang or Hou-Tsang), in fact even the westerly provinces such as Rudok and Ladak are commercially and especially in their tea requirements, connected with

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Szechwan and not with India. The reason lies not only in the fact that they are of the same race and origin and have the same taste /211/ for Szechwan-Chinese tea, but above all in the geographical characteristics which make traffic possible all the year round in Inner Tibet, and especially in fall and winter when the animals of the nomads have become fat, whereas the Himalaya passes and ravines are open only for a few weeks to the great caravans.

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The excellent location of the city of Ta tsien lu has also attracted the large missionary societies that are active in China. Since 1866 Ta tsien lu has been the seat of the Bishop of Tibet. The Catholic Mission du Thibet, a branch of the Missions étrangères, is probably the one mission which can show the most martyrs in relation to the number of its members. The history of this mission (see Desgodins, Le Thibet, Paris, 1865, and Launay, Histoire de la Mission du Thibet, Paris, 1902) is a continuous history of suffering. In the year 1846 Pope Gregory XVI created the apostolic vice-regency with its seat in Lhasa, but the Mission has not yet been able to reach that city. Its members have been completely driven out of the lama state of Lhasa ever since the 1860s and only bide their time on the Chinese-Tibetan border. However, in the meantime, a great, great many have been killed by the fanatical lamaists.

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I was not only most graciously received by Monseigneur Giraudeau (since 1897 Episcopus ecclesiae Tiniadensis et Vicarius apostolicus Thibetanus) but he also helped me overcome a great difficulty. When I came out of the interior and telegraphed my bank to send me money, the comprador sent the sum I had requested to such a small Chinese bank in Chung king, the nearest larger town in which there is a bank, that the post office could not find out where it was. In order to save me new delays, Monseigneur Giraudeau showed me how I could quickly get money through his commissioner. I should like, at this time also, to repeat my sincere expression of thanks for this service.

I was also very graciously received by the other missionaries - since the 1890s there are also Protestant missions here - by Dr. Shelton, an American medical missionary, and M. Sörrenson (member of the China inland mission), although my attire had become nothing less than shiny and my last European coat had been swept away by the waves of the Dsa Chu. I also saw Mr. Amundsen once again. He arrived two days after I did in Ta tsien lu, because the Mandarin Wu had not permitted him to travel farther than Tschanggu. I was kept